CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE NEW CENTRAL SUBSTATION, PICKENS COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 525

CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE NEW CENTRAL SUBSTATION, PICKENS COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

Prepared By:
Michael Trinkley, Ph.D., RPA
and
Nicole Southerland

Prepared For:
Mr. Tommy L. Jackson
Central Electric Power Cooperative
P.O. Box 1455
Columbia, SC 29202

CHICORA RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION 525

Chicora Foundation, Inc.
PO Box 8664
Columbia, SC 29202-8664
803/787-6910
www.chicora.org

March 22, 2010

This report is printed on permanent paper ∞

ABSTRACT

This study reports on an intensive cultural resources survey of an approximately 6.0 acre substation in the southern portion of Pickens County, northeast of the town of Central, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative in complying with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The lot is to be used by Central Electric Cooperative for the construction of a distribution substation. The topography is undulating with the property situated on a ridge side slope.

The proposed substation will require the clearing of the area, followed by construction of the proposed facility. These activities have the potential to affect archaeological and historical sites and this survey was conducted to identify and assess archaeological and historical sites that may be on or within sight of the substation lot. For this study, an area of potential effect (APE) 0.5 mile around the substation was assumed.

An investigation of ArchSite, which shows previously recorded architectural and archaeological sites, failed to show any sites in the 0.5 mile APE.

The archaeological survey of the substation lot incorporated shovel testing at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals. All shovel test fill was screened through ¼-inch mesh and the shovel tests were backfilled at the completion of the study. A total of 29 shovel tests were excavated along seven transect lines.

As a result of these investigations no sites were identified. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top, distance from a permanent water source, and severe erosion in the area.

A survey of public roads within a 0.5 mile of the proposed undertaking was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old which also retained their integrity. No such sites were found.

Finally, it is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during clearing activities. Crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

This investigation was conducted by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative in Columbia, South Carolina. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

The project site consists of a lot measuring about 6 acres. Intended for use as a substation, it is situated in southern Pickens County near Central (Figure 1). The substation lot is at the corner of White Oak Road (S-91) and an existing transmission line and substation.

The lot consists of land that slopes down to the southwest. The substation is located in a mixed pine and hardwood forest.

The lot is intended to be used as a substation for a distribution station. Landscape alteration, primarily clearing, subsequent erection of the poles and other facilities, erecting lines, and long-term maintenance of the substation will cause damage to the ground surface and any archaeological resources that may be present in the survey area.

Construction, operation, and maintenance of the substation may also have an impact on historic resources in the project area. Although the project will not remove any structures, substations (as well as other above grade projects) may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what many consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) about 0.5 mile in diameter around the proposed facility.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development or expansion of a transmission corridor that may be added to connect this substation to an existing line in this portion of Pickens County.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to perform a cultural resources survey on March 16, 2010. This included examination of ArchSite to look for any previously identified architectural or archaeological sites in the project area. As a result of that work no previously identified sites were found.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files.

The archaeological survey was conducted on March 19 by Ms. Nicole Southerland and Ms. Debi Hacker under the direction of Dr. Michael Trinkley.

This report details the investigation of the project area undertaken by Chicora Foundation and the results of that investigation.

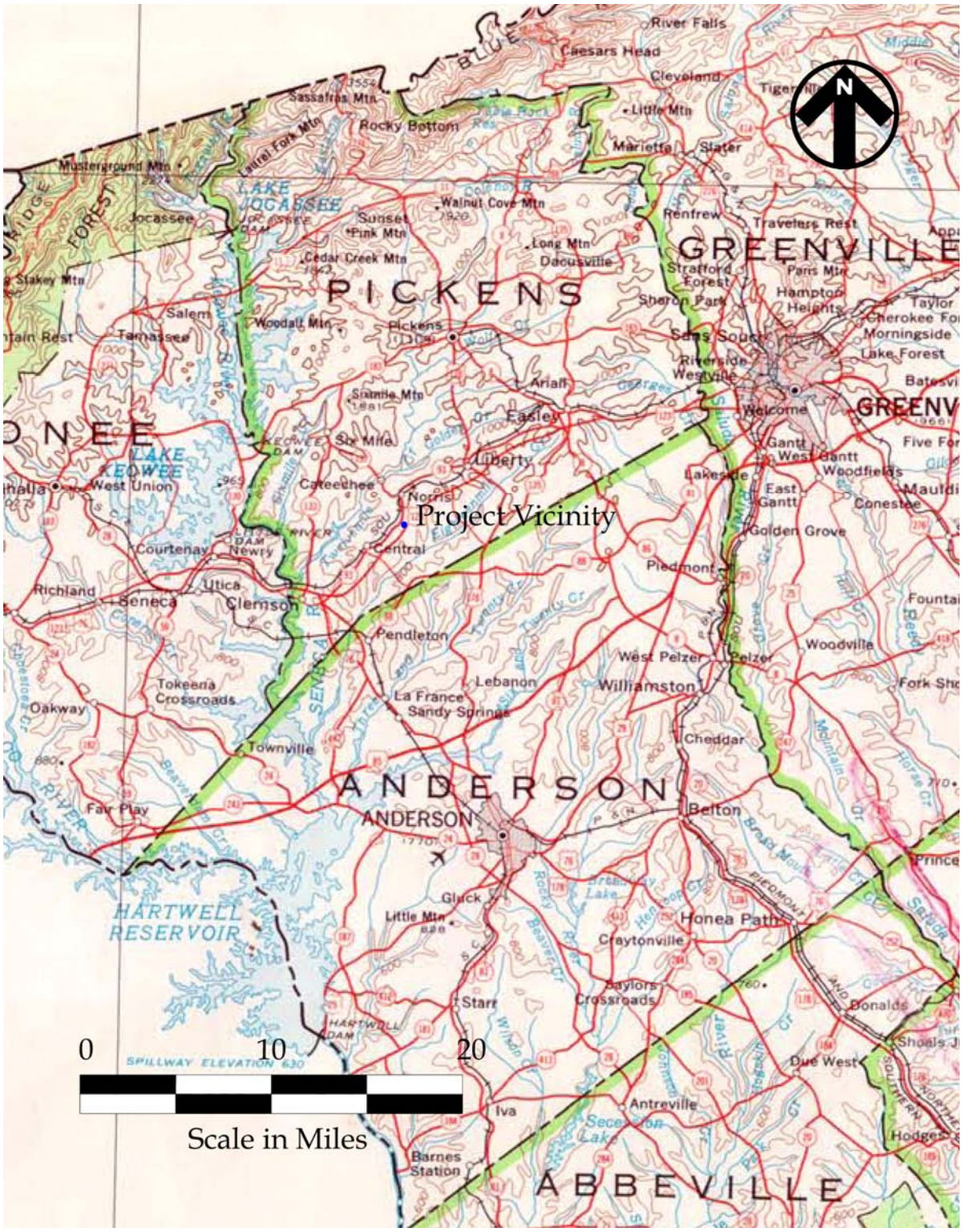

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Pickens County (basemap is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

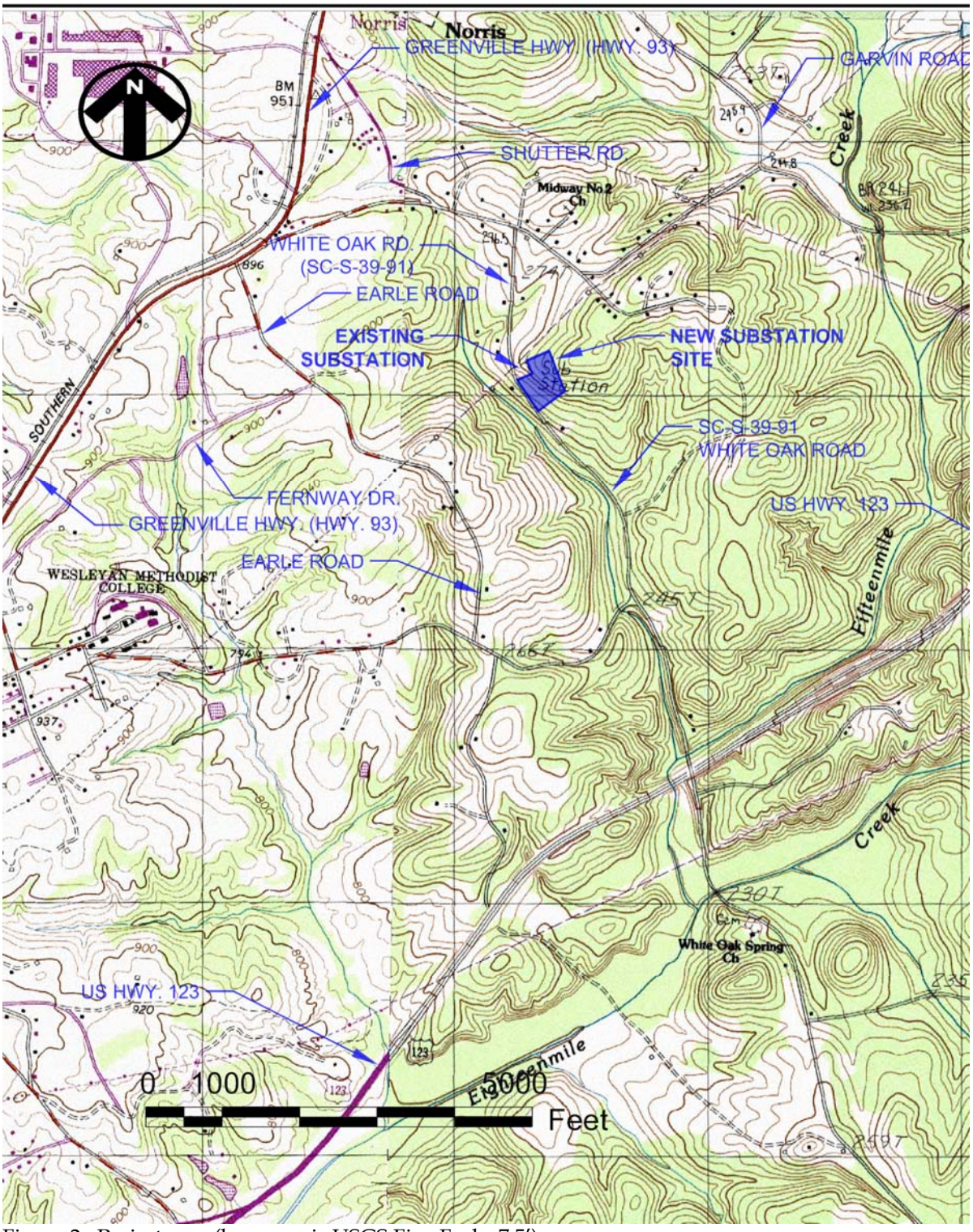

Figure 2. Project area (basemap is USGS Five Forks 7.5′).

NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

Physiographic Province

The project tract is located in the southern portion of Pickens County, northeast of the town of Central. The southern half of Pickens County (including the project area) falls within the Piedmont physiographic province, although the northern half of the county is found in the Blue Ridge Mountains.

The general slope of the terrain in the county is southwestward, which is the general direction of the major drainages within the County, such as the Keowee River. To the west of the tract is a tributary of Eighteenmile Creek, which eventually flows west to the Seneca River. It is this river that was dammed during a 1944 congressional act authorizing hydroelectric projects, creating Hartwell Reservoir.

This Army Corps project, covering 23,633 acres, was the second of its kind and was completed in 1963 (Kovacik and Winberry 1987:201). Like the Clark Hill project, it was completed with relatively little controversy (and virtually no archaeological research). The last of the three projects contemplated by Congress in 1944 was the Richard B. Russell Reservoir (originally the Trotter Shoals project). The reservoir was not completed until 1983 and faced a hailstorm of public and environmental opposition.

The land in Pickens County ranges from nearly level to steep, but most areas are gently sloping to moderately steep. Like elsewhere in the Piedmont, the drainages form a dendritic pattern and throughout the Piedmont, the terrain has been extensively dissected and degraded.

Elevations in the County range from about 700 to 1,400 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in the Piedmont, although in the Blue Ridge Mountains to the north, elevations rise up to nearly 3,500 feet AMSL (Byrd 1972:1). Being in the Piedmont, elevations in the project area range from about 830 to 915 feet AMSL.

Geology and Soils

Most of the rocks of the Piedmont are gneiss and schist, with some marble and quartzite (Hasselton 1974). Some less intensively metamorphosed rocks, such as slate, occur along the eastern part of the province from southern Virginia into Georgia. This area, called the Slate Belt, is characterized by slightly lower ground

Figure 3. View of eroded soils in the mixed pine and hardwood forest in the project area.

with wider river valleys. Consequently, the Slate Belt has been favored for reservoir sites (Johnson 1970), as well as prehistoric occupation (see Coe 1964).

The study tract includes two soil series: Cataula and Cecil – with Catuala being moderately well drained and Cecil soils being well drained (Byrd 1972). The Catuala soils, which cover about 83% of the project tract, have an Ap horizon of brown (10YR4/3) sandy loam to 0.4 foot in depth over a strong brown (7.5YR5/6) sandy loam to 0.8 foot in depth. The subsoil is a red (2.5YR4/6) clay, occurring to 1.8 feet in depth. Catuala soils are generally severely eroded with a 6-15% slope in the project area.

Cecil soils, which are also severely eroded, have an Ap horizon of dark yellowish brown (10YR4/4) sandy loam to 0.7 foot in depth over a red 10R4/8) clay to a depth of 2.2 feet. Slopes in this area are 6-10% in grade.

The 1934 South Carolina Erosion Survey by M.W. Lowry found that this portion of Pickens County exhibited either severe erosion with 25-75% of the surface gone or complete disappearance of the ground surface (Lowry 1934). This portion of Pickens County has lost up to 1.1 foot of soil through erosion in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Trimble 1974:3). It is part of the area classified by Trimble as having high antebellum erosion land use with postbellum continuation and belonging to his Region III – the Cotton Plantation Area (Trimble 1974:15).

Within recent times, this area has been logged, likely increasing soil loss originating during earlier agricultural activities. The United States Forest Service has determined that logging accounts for upwards of 0.36 tons of soil erosion per acre per year in this region, while areas of skid trails have erosion rates of about 9.91 tons per acre per year (U.S. Department of Agriculture 1980:25).

In 1826, Robert Mills remarked that the soils of the Pendleton District (which included modern Pickens County) were primarily "red clay, susceptible of great and lasting improvements" (Mills 1972 [1826]:673). In addition, he was already sounding an alarm, commenting that:

> The deteriorating effects consequent upon the planting system, observable in other districts, should prove a lesson to this, to avoid falling into the same error. The woods will disappear fast enough, without clearing more land than can be cultivated to advantage; and, in a hilly country like Pendleton, particular care should be taken, when the lands are left in fallow, to keep them enclosed; and to give them a vegetable coat, to guard the surface from being washed away. It is deplorable to see the neglect of many of our planters in different districts, in this respect; and the consequent destruction of some of the finest farming lands (Mills 1972 [1826]:683-684).

Fairfield planter William Ellison remarked in 1828 that "the successful cotton planter sits down in the choicest of his lands, slaughters the forest, and murders the soil" (quoted in Ford 1988:38). In 1842, agricultural reformer Edmund Ruffin warned of impending disaster from the reliance on cotton and observed that little effort was being made to protect the land (Ruffin 1843:73).

In spite of these early warnings, the South Carolina Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration, as late as 1907, found no reason to remark on the threat of erosion, noting only that "the second best cotton lands are found in Anderson and Laurens Counties " just south and east of Pickens County (State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:255). In 1906, Pickens County had three cotton seed oil mills (State Department of

Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration 1907:289).

Climate

Elevation, latitude, and distance from the coast work together to affect the climate of South Carolina, including the Piedmont. In addition, the more westerly mountains block or moderated many of the cold air masses that flow across the state from west to east. Even the very cold air masses that cross the mountains are warmed somewhat by compression before they descend on the Piedmont.

Figure 4. View of honeysuckle in the project area.

Consequently, the climate of Pickens County is temperate. The winters are relatively mild and the summers warm and humid. Rainfall in the amount of about 55 inches is adequate.

Mills described the climate as "one of the best in the United States, and equal to any in the world" noting that the temperature was "seldom below 18˚in winter, and that for only a few days; in summer it never is over 90˚to 97˚and this lasts only for about ten days in the early part of July" (Mills 1972[1826]:677).

In fact, the average low temperature in about 49˚ F and the average high at about 73˚F (Byrd 1972:68). Byrd (1972:67) also notes that "temperatures of 100˚ are infrequent because the elevation…has a moderating effect."

Floristics

Piedmont forests generally belong to the Oak-Hickory Formation as established by Braun (1950). Most common are white oaks, black oaks, and red oaks, although a wide range of additional species may be found including hickories, loblolly and shortleaf pines, black gum, and sweetgum. In low areas beech, ash, hickories, and birch may replace the oaks and at the water's edge there may be willows and alders. The Piedmont diversity is largely related to variations in the moisture content and fertility of the soils. Barry, expressing the attitude of many, remarks that:

> the present aspect of piedmont landscape has doubtless come about as a result of one or more erosion cycles. These cycles have left us with an area as complex as anyone would like to make it, yet an area which, for a layman's viewpoint, is relatively unimpressive (Barry 1980: 61).

While Mills didn't point out the variation in Pendleton district and associate it with topography or elevation, he did note the number of different types of trees present (Mills 1972[1826]:682). He also noted the range of fruit trees being grown in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, including apple, peach, pear, cherry, plum, and quince. Even grapes were being

grown in the lower elevations.

Vegetation within the project area today consists of a mixed pine and hardwood forest. Dense understory has consumed much of the area including honeysuckle, which has covered much of the outer limits of the forest.

PREHISTORIC AND HISTORIC OVERVIEW

Previous Research

The Piedmont has been the focus of considerable archaeological research. Pickens County, however, has yet to see much work. Derting et al. (1991), for example, cite only 39 studies specific to Pickens County prior to 1991. Almost all of these reports are compliance projects. A discussion with the site files manager at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, Keith Derting, revealed that only 162 sites have been recorded for Pickens County – the last site was recorded in 2008 (Keith Derting, personal communication 2010).

As a result, there is no single synthesis of the area's archaeology. In fact, of the three recent archaeological studies found in the vicinity of the current project, none found any sites (Barmann et al. 2004; Joy et al. 2005; Sweeney and Kane 2005).

In addition, the Paleoindian and Early Archaic is carefully explored by a variety of authors in an edited volume by Anderson and Sassaman (1996). These same researchers have also explored the Middle and Late Archaic (Sassaman and Anderson 1994). The Woodland and Mississippian is less well researched for the Piedmont, although Anderson (1994) does provide a generalized overview.

Adjacent Oconee County has been the location of several Native American occupation studies. For further information see, for example Smith et al. (1988), Miller (1959), or Kelly and de Baillou (1960).

Historic site location is more difficult to gauge given the scarcity of work in the area. In general, researchers have found in neighboring areas the earliest occupations were located on rivers, but as the eighteenth century progressed, creeks were also a focus of settlement. During the nineteenth century, settlement became more road oriented (see Brooks and Crass 1991).

Prehistoric Overview

In the Carolina Piedmont, lithic scatters are the most common type of prehistoric site encountered. Goodyear et al. (1979:131-145) found that lithic scatter sites located in the inter-riverine Piedmont were geographically extensive and exhibited little artifact diversity. These sites have been interpreted as:

> limited or specialized activity sites which represent resource exploitation or other distinct functions. Nearly all investigators working in the Piedmont have related these sites to activities involving hunting, nut gathering, and procuring of lithic raw materials (Canouts and Goodyear 1985:185).

Although the vast majority of these sites are located in eroded areas and exhibit little to no subsurface integrity, Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue that they have analytical value. This value lies in their horizontal rather than vertical dimensions. They argue that:

> [f]uture investigators of upland site must affect broad-scale spatial analyses comparable to the temporal analyses affected through excavation of deeply stratified sites. Both endeavors are necessary, and neither is sufficient for the total understanding of Piedmont prehistory" (Canouts and

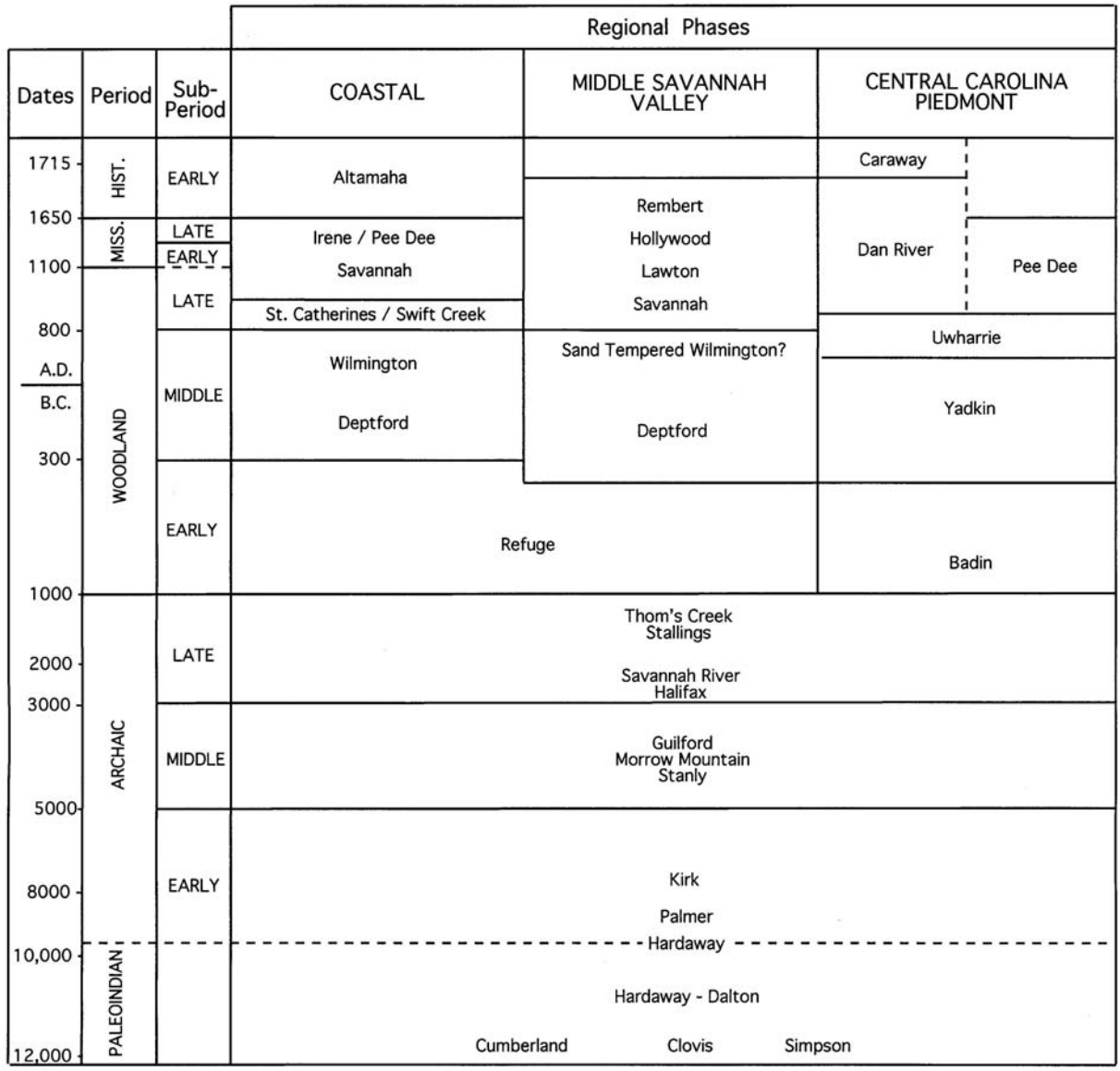

Figure 5. Generalized cultural sequence for South Carolina.

Goodyear 1985: 193).

One observation that Canouts and Goodyear (1985) made is that lithic raw material ratios change through time. For instance, at the Gregg Shoals site in Elbert County, Georgia, the Early Archaic assemblage reflects greater use of non-local cryptocrystalline materials and the Late Archaic, greater use of non-quartz local material (see Tippitt and Marquardt 1981). Examination of changing use of lithic resources will help archaeologists better understand issues such as the extent of seasonal rounds, trade networks, and social organization. Clearly, the discussions by Canouts and Goodyear (1985) argue strongly for a higher regard for the "lowly" lithic scatter — a very common occurrence in the Piedmont.

Figure 5 provides an overview of the cultural sequence commonly found in the Carolina

Piedmont.

Paleoindian Period

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side-notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Points usually associated with this period include the Clovis and several variants, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton (Goodyear et al. 1989:36-38).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society, were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

Very little work in the state has been able to focus on Paleoindian settlements because of the rarity of the site type. No evidence was found for Paleoindian occupation in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine area, which is not surprising since elsewhere in the state these sites are usually found clustered along major drainages and their tributaries which is interpreted by Michie (1977:124) to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega-fauna."

One site identified in the Sumter National Forest (Price 1992), in nearby Laurens County, is believed to have a possible Paleoindian component (38LU317). It is situated on a ridge saddle adjacent to a spring, which feeds into the Enoree River, located only about 0.3 miles to the north. This fits well with previous arguments that Paleoindian sites will be located adjacent to major drainages.

Anderson (1992:32) suggests that the comparatively low density of Paleoindian diagnostics in South Carolina may be because the state could have been on the edge of the ranges of groups centered in other areas. He suggests that permanent settlements elsewhere probably occurred later in the Paleoindian period, only when population levels had grown appreciably in these centers. This would help to explain the overlap in stylistic traditions (such as the Clovis, Suwannee, Simpson, and Dalton) observed in South Carolina which perhaps resulted from populations expanding outward from these centers.

Archaic Period

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to as late as 500 B.C. in the Piedmont, does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Archaic period assemblages, characterized by corner-notched, side-notched, and broad stemmed projectile points, are common in the vicinity, although they rarely are found in good, well-preserved contexts (for a thorough discussion of the Early Archaic, see Anderson and Sassaman 1996, while Anderson and Joseph 1988 offer a review of prehistoric archaeology along the upper Savannah River).

Prehistoric sites in the Piedmont inter-riverine zones are for the most part characterized as "upland lithic scatters" (House and Wogaman 1978:xii). These sites are shallow deposits without stratigraphic definition, contain a diversity of artifacts, and are commonly disturbed by plowing and/or erosion (Canouts and Goodyear 1985; Trinkley and Caballero 1983:27).

Early Archaic

During the Laurens-Anderson study (Goodyear et al. 1979), four sites with Early Archaic components were identified. Each of these

sites contained a single example of Dalton[1] points or probable Dalton preforms made of indigenous Piedmont quartz. The following Palmer phase was found to be very common in the area and was represented by 28 sites. While most of the specimens were manufactured from the local quartz, some were manufactured from Coastal Plain chert from the Flint River formation located in the lower coastal plain of South Carolina and Georgia. There were also examples of metavolcanic rhyolite from the Carolina Slate Belt and what may be "Ridge and Valley chert" from eastern Tennessee.

At these sites a wide range of tool types were identified including a large number of unifacial and flake tools believed to be associated with the Early Archaic occupation. Goodyear et al. (1979:197) found that while Early Archaic sites with unifaces were found throughout the corridor, sites on ridgetops which were large watershed divides produced higher counts. They believe that the large number of sites producing Palmer points is related to environmental changes at that time. The large diversity in lithic raw material provided information regarding their "mobility patterns and regions of interactions" (Goodyear et al. 1979:198).

Anderson and Hanson's (1988) band/macroband model of Early Archaic settlement was formulated primarily to evaluate data from the Savannah River basin. In the Savannah River Valley, settlement organization of the Early Archaic people was "characterized by the use of a logistically provisioned seasonal base camp or camps during the winter, and a series of short-term foraging camps throughout the remainder of the year" (Anderson 1992:36). During the early spring, the groups are believed to have moved toward the coast, then back into the upper coastal plain and piedmont during the later spring, summer, and early fall. During the winter they returned to their base camp incorporating some side trips to other drainages for aggregation events by groups from two or more different drainages. These aggregation sites are believed to have been located on Fall Line river terraces (Anderson 1989a:36). One example of a postulated base camp is the G.S. Lewis site at the Savannah River Site. This site is located on a ridge adjacent to the confluence of Upper Three Runs Creek and the Savannah River. Given this scenario for the Savannah River basin (which likely applies to other river basins), Early Archaic sites in the Piedmont were likely occupied from summer until fall and don't include aggregation sites. Anderson and Hanson (1988) place the Upper Piedmont in the Saluda/Broad macroband settlement system. At the band level, they proposed "co-residential population aggregates" consisting of 50 to 150 people that occupied and moved primarily within one drainage basin. They projected that individual macroband population was between 500 and 1500 people. They also formulated a spatial model for the distribution of individual bands over the South Atlantic Slope.

Anderson (1989b) notes that data from the Savannah River Site and the Richard B. Russell Reservoir "suggest that a decline in utilization of the Coastal Plain may have occurred at the same time as an increase in utilization of the Piedmont [and] may be a part of a trend noted in the terminal Early Archaic in the general region. Settlement patterning in any given area was thus likely shaped by a range of variables, such as local resource structure, as well as by more regional trends in climate, population density, and these patterns apparently changed appreciably over time" (Anderson 1992:39). Data from the Laurens-Anderson study and the Savannah River project suggests that inter-riverine sites will be found on hills between watershed divides and riverine sites will be located on knolls adjacent to a major confluence.

Middle Archaic

Morrow Mountain and Guilford points constituted the primary evidence for Middle

[1] Some researchers (see, for instance, Anderson 1992) classify Dalton as Paleoindian while others (Goodyear et al. 1989) classify it as Archaic.

Archaic (5000 to 3000 B.C.) occupation in the Laurens-Anderson corridor (Goodyear et al. 1979). Morrow Mountain constituted the vast bulk of these projectile points and were present in both the I and II varieties.[2] Over 95% of the 145 points were manufactured from the local quartz, which parallels other findings in Piedmont South Carolina. Guilford was not nearly as prominent and consisted of 35 finished specimens or preforms, all of which were manufactured from quartz.[3]

The Middle Archaic period was found to consist of the largest number of sites. In terms of geographic distribution, Goodyear et al. (1979) found that the Morrow Mountain phase was much like the Palmer phase, with sites occurring on ridges between watersheds. However, the almost complete reliance on local quartz separates the Morrow Mountain and Guilford phase sharply from the earlier Palmer phase. They suggest that "[t]he large number of Middle Archaic sites well dispersed through the inter-riverine areas and the abundant nature of chipped quartz remains on these sites suggest frequent movement and activity throughout the Piedmont of South Carolina" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). Data from early reservoir projects (see, for example, Wauchope 1966) as well as inter-riverine observations by Caldwell (1954; 1958) and Coe (1952) made it clear that there were sharp contrasts between riverine and inter-riverine sites in terms of artifact diversity and density, and in the use of shellfish (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:134). With the advent of cultural resource management in the 1970s, additional data was available and further emphasized these differences. All of this data indicated that the largest and densest sites were located along large rivers, and that small, sparse sites were found throughout the uplands. While these differences were clear, what remained unclear was the relationship between riverine and inter-riverine sites in a settlement-subsistence system, and how, if at all, this system changed over time (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:135).

House and Ballenger studied this issue during their survey work on the proposed Interstate 77 project in 1976. They classified riverine zones of containing only the largest rivers while inter-riverine zones consisted of smaller rivers and streams. House and Ballenger (1976) argued that streams with a ranking of 3 or higher[4] contained resources that were not abundant in the uplands (fish, turtle, raccoon, etc.), whereas smaller streams had a higher density of deer and nut masts. The resulting archaeological assemblages from these distinct areas should, themselves, be distinct (House and Ballenger 1976; Sassaman and Anderson 1994). They divided their sites into habitation and extraction sites[5] using a

[2] Coe (1964) describes Morrow Mountain I as a small triangular blade with a short pointed stem, while the Morrow Mountain II is described as a long narrow blade with a long tapered stem. While he describes them as different types, he notes that many people have chosen not distinguish between the two.

[3] Preforms represent an intermediate stage between flakes from secondary cores and quarry blades. Some are worked bifacially, although most are unifacial and still retain the platform and bulb of percussion. Quarry blades are usually bifacially worked and are made to allow easy transportation of lithic materials until the time it is needed to be made into a projectile point. Some researchers have used the terms preform and quarry blade interchangeably, meaning the bifacially worked ovate blade.

[4] According to the system, based on Strahler (1964) 1st order streams are the fingertip tributaries at the head of a stream and may either be year-round or seasonally flowing streams. A 2nd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 1st order streams. A 3rd order stream is formed by the confluence of two 2nd order streams, etc. This system requires that at least two streams of a given order be joined to form a stream of the next highest order. The main stem of a river will always have the highest order.

[5] An extraction site is an area where resources (such as fish, lithic raw material, etc.) were obtained and is often represented by lithic debitage and perhaps small camp sites. A habitation site is a seasonal or temporary camp where these resources were usually

lithic tool classification scheme that would allow functional sorting of the two site types. From the information gathered using this analysis, coupled with data on the seasonal availability of resources, they created a Middle and Late Archaic settlement model:

> involving spring and summer residence along major rivers; a move to seasonal base camps in upland creek valleys in September to take advantage of deer concentration in upland hardwood zones, with some exploitation of other resources as well; and then a return to riverine-located winter quarters with permanent houses in about December when the coldest months arrived, the deer rutting season came to an end, and the acorn mast in the hardwood forests began to be exhausted (House and Ballenger 1976:117).

The Windy Ridge site (House and Wogaman 1978), while fitting the expected upland site profile as proposed by House and Ballenger (1976), may have been used as a habitation site during the Middle Archaic. Other projects also complicated the model. Work in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir (Anderson and Schuldenrein 1985; Tippett and Marquardt 1981) examined a number of sites with Morrow Mountain components. Interestingly, none of these riverine sites produced denser or more diverse remains than did inter-riverine sites. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were not using the riverine and inter-riverine areas much differently in this part of the state (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:137).

Sassaman (1983) attempted to more closely examine Middle and Late Archaic settlement patterns by examining sites from a number of piedmont studies. He found that Middle Archaic settlement in the South Carolina Piedmont did not fit the riverine-inter-riverine model. This suggested that Middle Archaic people were much more mobile, perhaps moving residences every few weeks which fit Binford's (1980) definition of a foraging society. Binford (1980) proposed that foragers had high levels of residential mobility, moving camps often to take advantage of dispersed, but similar resource patches. Collectors stayed in one location longer, by sending out specialized work parties to exploit resources in widely dispersed and distinct resource patches. He believed that differences in environmental structure could be traced to large scale climactic factors. He further noted that a collector system could arise under any conditions that limited the ability of hunter-gatherers to relocate residences. During his work in the Haw River area of North Carolina, Cable (1982) argued that postglacial warming at the end of the Pleistocene led to increased vegetational homogeneity which encouraged foraging.[6]

Sassaman (1983) suggests that this indicates a large degree of homogeneity of the piedmont environments. They also had a high degree of social flexibility, allowing them to pick up and move when needed. This high level of mobility did not allow them to transport much material, which in turn, alleviated the need for elaborate or specialized tools to procure and process resources at locations distant from camp. Since quartz is practically everywhere in the piedmont, tools could be easily replaced and were expedient. The high mobility and the expediency of tools help to explain the abundance of Middle Archaic sites in the piedmont without having to imply a population explosion. Sassaman called this model the "Adaptive Flexibility" model (Sassaman 1983; Sassaman and Anderson 1994).

consumed, used, or worked.

[6] Since the vegetation was homogeneous and there were no concentrations of resources people moved from place to place foraging rather than settling near or in these resource concentrations.

Late Archaic

Savannah River Stemmed and Otarre[7] stemmed points are the primary indicators of Late Archaic settlement in the Laurens-Anderson study area. Ten Savannah River phase sites and seven Otarre phase sites were identified. Quartz tools, which were found in overwhelming abundance at earlier sites, consisted only of about 57% of the Savannah River assemblage. Other materials included "silicates, volcanic slate/argillite, and unknown igneous/metamorphic" (Goodyear et al. 1979:207). The Otarre assemblage reflected a trend away from igneous/metamorphic rock, with a concentration of quartz and siliceous materials. The incorporation of more types of lithic raw material as well as the fact that Late Archaic diagnostics are much fewer than Middle Archaic diagnostic artifacts indicates a sharp decrease in residential mobility.

Many of these Late Archaic sites produced fire cracked rock which was found on major ridges between watersheds. Goodyear et al. (1979:209-210) found that the inter-riverine picture of the Late Archaic contrasted quite sharply with river sites. Artifacts at riverine sites were diverse and included steatite vessels and netsinkers[8], ground stone axes, rock mortars and handstones, atlatl weights, and chipped stone drills. In the upland sites, the assemblage consists almost entirely of chipped stone bifaces and debitage. Purrington (1983) also noted this trend for the mountain region of North Carolina. At the Savannah River Plant, both riverine and upland sites contained a full range of tools, but no architectural features have been located.

Soapstone became an important lithic resource in the Late Archaic period for manufacturing of cooking vessels, and a number of soapstone quarries have been identified in Spartanburg and Cherokee counties (Ferguson 1976). Unfortunately, little is known about patterns in local soapstone use, although Elliott (1981) argues that soapstone exchange in the upcountry was facilitated by local reciprocal relationships. Soapstone was also probably used as a mechanism to maintain long distance relationships through long distance trade. Sassaman et al. state that:

> [c]ompared to sites in the upper and lower reaches of the Coastal Plain, a higher proportion of sites in the middle portion of the plain contain soapstone artifacts. This may indicate that soapstone distributions were not merely the result of distance-decay from sources, but were much more dependent on the social composition of exchange alliances (Sassaman et al. 1988:90).

For the Late Archaic, John White (1982) also applied a riverine/inter-riverine dichotomy. He demonstrated that riverine sites were much more dense and diverse than inter-riverine sites, but also identified the existence of diverse and sometimes dense assemblages at upland sites. He argued that they were habitation camps during periods of seasonal dispersal from riverine aggregation bases.

Although Steven Savage (1989) has proposed a "Late Archaic Landscape" model, a number of researchers (i.e. Anderson 1989a; Cable 1994; and Rafferty 1992) have noted that his study was seriously flawed by the "misappropriation of data from the Richard B. Russell survey"

[7] According to Oliver (1981) the Otarre type is contemporaneous with the Savannah River stemmed type and fall within the category of "Small Savannah River Stemmed".

[8] Sassaman (1991:87-88) states that "perforated and grooved objects are common items in Late Archaic assemblages of the Savannah River Valley. Both the grooved and perforated varieties have been referred to as "netsinkers", but the more common perforated slave was apparently used as a cooking stone."

(Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142). The purpose of the work was to attempt to apply the locational methods of GIS to the analysis of Late Archaic social systems in the Upper Savannah River Valley. However, he only chose to use early intensive survey data and ignored subsequent data from testing and excavation. In addition, he chose to ignore problems such as multicomponentcy and representativeness (Cable 1994). Although it was considered a noteworthy study since it was the first to use Geographic Information Systems (GIS) for the analysis of settlement distribution, "the errors detract from the potential value of Savage's approach" (Sassaman and Anderson 1994:142).

Woodland Period

The Woodland period begins, by definition, with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast and much later in the Carolina Piedmont, about 500 B.C. Regardless, the period from 2000 to 500 B.C. was a period of tremendous change.

The subsistence economy during this period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish. Various calculations of the probable yield of deer, fish, and other food sources identified from some coastal sites indicate that sedentary life was not only possible, but probable. Further inland it seems likely that many Native American groups continued the previous established patterns of band mobility. These frequent moves would allow the groups to take advantage of various seasonal resources, such as shad and sturgeon in the spring, nut masts in the fall, and turkeys during the winter.

Early Woodland

Brooks and Hanson (1987) noted significant changes in the density and distribution of upland tributary sites during the Woodland period in the Steel Creek area of the Savannah River Plant. Brooks proposed that as tributary associated habitats became more productive with floodplain maturation that upland tributary terraces became areas of more permanent occupation. For the Savannah River area, the data suggested to Brooks that annual settlement ranges in the Early Woodland period were restricted to tributary watersheds (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Artifacts typical of the Early Woodland in the Upper Piedmont consist of Dunlap and Swannanoa ceramics (similar to the Kellogg focus of Northern Georgia). The Dunlap series is characterized by a medium to coarse sand paste, fabric impressions, and vessels with a simple jar or cup form. The Swannanoa ceramics, with heavy crushed quartz temper, are cord marked or fabric impressed conidial jars and simple bowls. Other surface treatments consist of simple stamping, check stamping, and smoothed plain (Keel 1976:230). Early Woodland projectile point types consist of Savannah River Stemmed (and its variants) and Swannanoa Stemmed.

Land use during the Early Woodland period in some areas of the Piedmont suggests extensive use of the inter-riverine zone. Two sites (one in Greenville County and one in Laurens County) contained dense remains and were located on the south face of a slope adjacent to springs. Goodyear et al. (1979:230) suggest that these sites "reflect a fall-winter occupation period with subsistence activities primarily related to nut gathering and deer hunting. If these two sites in fact represent fall-winter base camps it would represent a strong break with previous Archaic systems and their settlement strategies for exploiting inter-riverine biotic resources". Based on these previous studies, Early Woodland sites are most likely to be found adjacent to springs or the upland terraces of tributaries.

Middle Woodland

The Middle Woodland period is found "virtually lacking" in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine zone. One densely occupied site in nearby Laurens County was found in an unusually large

floodplain of a rank 2 stream. Goodyear et al. state that:

> [g]iven the habitation like character of this site, plus the large number of simple stamped bearing floodplain sites along larger streams such as the Reedy River, it is tempting to see agriculture playing a role in the apparent re-orientation to flood-plain environments during the middle Woodland period in the Piedmont environment. In this regard, the middle Woodland period sites and their locations would seem to presage the late prehistoric Mississippian period pattern during the latter, where large agriculturally related villages were constructed along fertile stretches of floodplain (Goodyear et al. 1979:230-231).

This new pattern is also reflected in the Savannah River Valley where Savannah terrace sites at the mouth of Upper Three Runs Creek were being occupied again for intensive settlement. Midden accumulations at several sites indicate long term occupation or repeated occupations of these sites by relatively large groups (Sassaman et al. 1990:315).

Pottery typical of the Middle Woodland in the Upper Piedmont consists of the Pigeon and Cartersville series. Pigeon is quartz tempered with surface treatments of check stamping, simple stamping, and brushing. The Cartersville type is characterized by sand or grit paste with the primary surface treatment being cordmarking, although there are also check stamped and simple stamped varieties. The Cartersville series is thought to be closely related to the Deptford series on the Coast. Anderson and Schuldenrein (1985:720) suggest that Cartersville continues well into the Late Woodland period. Projectile points typically found in association with this pottery are the Pigeon Side Notched and Corner Notched types.

Testing at 38LU107 (Wood and Gresham 1981) demonstrated that one of the most intensive occupations of this multicomponent site was during the Middle Woodland period. This site is located on a knoll adjacent to South Rabon Creek, near its confluence with North Rabon Creek. A number of features were encountered including a large, deep pit, post holes, and a stone hearth. This indicated that even sites on plowed knolls can and do produce subsurface features.

Since the Middle Woodland period reflects a new pattern of settlement, questions regarding how quickly this change occurred and how the transition to horticulture affected their material culture should be examined. Clearly, this change did not occur over night and perhaps examination of radiocarbon dates from upland and riverine sites during this transition period will begin to clarify questions regarding change in lifeways.

Late Woodland

Small triangular points which are generally believed to be diagnostic of the Late Woodland and Mississippian periods consisted of 12 examples in the Laurens-Anderson study. Ten of these were manufactured from quartz while the other two where manufactured from either rhyolite or a Piedmont silicate. These projectile points were typed as "Mississippian triangulars" and included what they believed were Uwharrie or Pee Dee Triangular types and the Hamilton Incurvate Triangular type. Napier and Connestee Series pottery are typical Late Woodland types for the Upper Piedmont region. The Napier series is a fine sand tempered ware with fine complicated stamped designs. The Connestee series is a thin walled sand tempered ware with brushed or simple stamped surface decorations. There are also cordmarked, check stamped, fabric impressed, and plain varieties (Trinkley 1990).

According to Sassaman et al. (1990:317) Late Woodland occupations in the Savannah River Valley consisted of small habitation sites along all available terrace locations of both tributaries and the Savannah River. This increasing use of low-lying terraces suggests the increased exploitation of floodplain habitats, perhaps including maize agriculture, although no direct evidence has yet been found at the Savannah River Site.

Keel (1976) reported on the Garden Creek Mound No. 3 which contained a dominant Connestee component based on George Heye's 1915 examination of the mound. Later work at Garden Creek Mound No. 2 examined a portion of a village with a large quantity of Connestee remains. A number of post holes were exposed revealing one discernable square house with rounded corners measuring about 19 by 19 feet in outline. In addition, there were a number refuse pits and hearths. The hearths included both rock filled and surface hearths. There were also a number of burial pits (see Keel 1976:99). It is likely that Connestee sites in the Upper Piedmont will contain similar features.

Mississippian Period

The South Appalachian Mississippian period, from about A.D. 1100 to A.D. 1640 is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease.[9] The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers.

In the Upper Piedmont, Mississippian pottery includes the Pisgah and Qualla series. Pisgah ceramics are tempered with unmodified river sand, although some earlier examples contain both river sand and crushed quartz. It is decorated with complicated stamping, check stamping and ladder-like rectilinear patterns (Dickens 1970; Holden 1966). It should be noted that the Qualla series extends well into the historic period (ca.1500-1908) and is characterized by complicated stamping and bold incising. Other types described by Egloff (1967) include burnished, plain, check stamped, cord marked, and corncob impressed. At Tuckasegee brushed examples were also identified (Keel 1976). Other artifacts associated with the Mississippian period include triangular projectile points, flake scrapers, microtools, gravers, perforators, drill, ground stone objects (celts, pipes, and discoidals), and worked shell and mica (Keel 1976).

Very little evidence of Mississippian period occupation was found in the Laurens-Anderson inter-riverine survey area, which is not surprising given the focus on riverine resources during this time period. Very little evidence of Mississippian occupation has been documented at the Savannah River Plant and no formal settlement-subsistence model has been created for this area (Sassaman et al. 1990:317). However, Anderson (1994) has provided a detailed examination of evidence for political change at Mississippian sites in the Savannah River Valley and should be consulted for more information.

Excavations at large Mississippian sites in the Upper Piedmont include work at the I.C. Few site which was examined as a part of the Keowee-Toxaway Reservoir project sponsored by Duke Power Company (Grange 1972). Simpson's Field (38AN8) on the Savannah River was also investigated during the Richard B. Russell Reservoir studies (Wood et al. 1986). Work at the Chauga site (38OC47) in nearby Oconee County evidenced occupation in the Early and Late Mississippian period. Ten stages of mound building were found at the site along with burials and palisades. There is evidence for increasing impoverishment of the residents through time, since burials associated with the latest phases of

[9] Small pox was a major cause of death to a large number of Native Americans during the historic period. The smallpox epidemics of 1734 and 1783 reportedly killed half of the Cherokee population (Hatley 1993).

mound building contained fewer grave goods than earlier phases in both the occupation during the Early Mississippian and the Late Mississippian (Anderson 1994:303-305). Homes Hogue Wilson (1986) examined burials from the Warren Wilson site in western North Carolina and provided some preliminary conclusions regarding social structure based on location of burials according to age and sex. For instance, she found more males than females were buried under structure floors. These males included primarily those under 25 or over 35 years old. She also found that individuals buried inside of structures were more likely to have burial goods than those buried in public areas. Burial feature types included pit burials, side-chambered burials, and central-chambered burials. Studies such as this can give great insight into the social organization of prehistoric societies.

The largest amount of regional work has taken place in the North Carolina mountains at sites such as Tuckasegee, Garden Creek, and Warren Wilson. At Tuckasegee a possible town house was uncovered measuring about 23 feet in diameter with a central hearth (Keel 1976). At Warren Wilson several roughly square structures were uncovered and they all measured on the average about 21 feet square. Burials were common inside of these houses and pit features were abundant. Artifacts at the Warren Wilson site included ceramics from the Swannanoa series up through the Pisgah series. (Dickens 1970).

Historic Overview

Historical accounts of the territory encompassing the Piedmont began with the DeSoto expedition in 1540 (Swanton 1946). This area, referred to as the "Up Country" or "Back Country" interchangeably, was recognized by the Indians and the early settlers to be the hunting grounds of the Lower Cherokee (Logan 1859: 6). In these early years the principal source of interaction between the European settlers and the Cherokee involved a loosely organized trading network.

After the establishment of South Carolina as a British province in 1670, organization and delineation into more manageable territorial units began. In 1682, the Proprietors sectioned the new province into four counties. Present Pickens County was included in the largest of these. A further refinement of boundaries in 1769 saw the creation of the Ninety Six District, although Pickens (along with Greenville, Oconee, and Anderson counties) was considered part of the Cherokee Lands. South Carolina acquired these lands in 1777. Mills observed that prior to this treaty:

> Few of no emigrations extended as high up the country, as where Pendleton District is now located. By this treaty, accession of lands and liberty to erect forts on the western frontier, as a barrier against the French on the southwest, were granted by the Indians (Mills 1972[1826]: 671-672).

Both the treaty and events further north spurred settlement into the area. Most notably, the area was settled by Scotch-Irish from Virginia and Pennsylvania, augmented by Low Country families who came to the up country for summer comfort and remained permanently.

The 1755 treaty between the Cherokee and Governor James Glen ceded nearly half of the territory of present South Carolina to the whites (Mills 1972[1826]: 604). An early and sparse influx of settlers from the north was composed mainly of cattlemen and Indian traders. These semi-permanent settlements were concentrated along the streams and rivers where land was both productive and easily cleared. Cattlemen constructed temporary "cowpens" and planted small sections of corn, grains, and produce for home consumption.

It was not until 1789 that modern-day Pickens County, taken from the Cherokee during the American Revolution, was created – being

called Pendleton District. Although this district accounted for only about 8% of the state's area, by 1790 it contained about 10% of the state's population.

In this early period of European settlement there was little connection with the legal authorities on the coast (i.e., Charleston), leaving the Up Country largely autonomous. This led to the emergence of the Regulator Movement of the 1760s, a vigilante organization that attempted to maintain order and provide security through a system of courts and offices (Racine 1980: 13). By the eve of the Revolution, two-thirds of the South Carolina population lived in the Up Country (Racine 1980: 14).

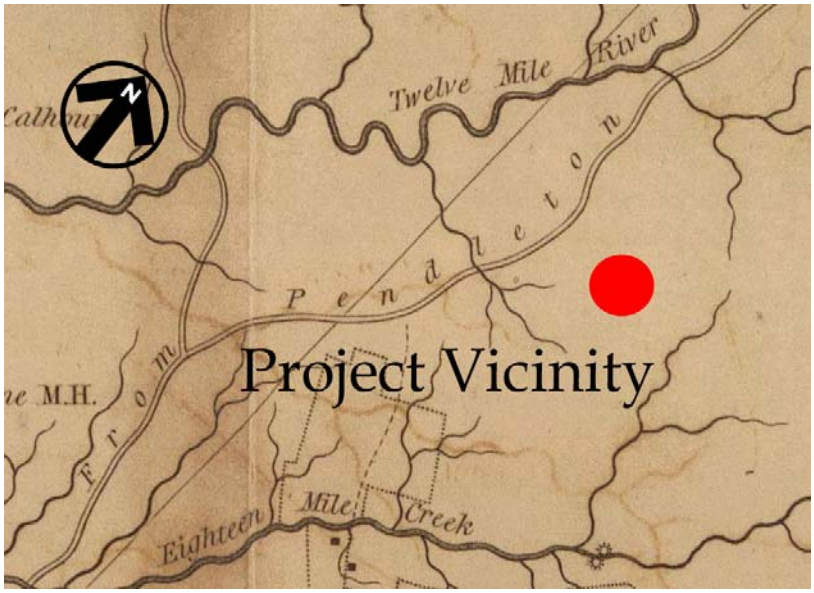

Figure 6. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* of 1826 showing the project area in Pendleton District.

By the onset of the American Revolution, the population of the Carolina Up Country was quite diverse in its ethnic, religious, and political backgrounds. These differences seemed to localize the hostilities between Whigs and Tories living side by side. The only two events of note were at the "Great Cane Break" on December 22, 1775, and at the headwaters of the Tyger River in November 1781 (Lipscomb 1991).

The engagement at "the Brake of Canes" represents the culmination of what has become known as the "Snow Campaign." In early December 1775 the patriot leaders in South Carolina demanded an end to Loyalist activities in the Ninety Six District. Three thousand men were placed under the command of Colonel Richard Richardson and they set off for the Up Country. By December 12 they captured Richard Pearis and eight other Tory leaders. By December 21 Richardson's command had swelled to 5,000 troops and he sent 1,300, under the command of Colonel William Thomson, to pursue other Loyalists into Indian Territory.

After marching all night they found the Loyalist camp at "the Brake of Canes," considered to be about 7 miles southwest of present-day Simpsonville. The patriots surrounded the camp and mounted a surprise attack at dawn on December 22. While the Loyalist leader Patrick Cunningham escaped, 130 prisoners were taken and marched back to the patriot camp (see Huff 1995: 22-23).

While this temporarily ended the Loyalist threat in the region, the Cherokees continued to support the British and engaged in a long campaign against settlers in the area. In response, the Cherokee faced at least seven major offensives before the Revolutionary War was over. Each attack was similar to the previous, with each one further reducing Cherokee food reserves and population. Soconee, Keowee, Sugar Town, Estatoe, Tugaloo, Tamassee, Cheowee, and Eustaste were burned and fields full of crops were destroyed. Eventually the Cherokee will was broken and with only a handful of intact settlements the Cherokee sued for peace, signing two separate treaties.

In the first, signed on May 20, 1777 at DeWitt's Corners, the Cherokee surrendered nearly all their remaining territory in South Carolina, including the present counties of Greenville, Anderson, Pickens, and Oconee. A second treaty was signed on July 20, 1777 at the Long Island of the Holston. Here the Cherokee ceded everything they possessed east of the Blue Ridge, fulfilling the colonial South Carolina lust for land and driving the Cherokees (at least on paper) "beyond the mountains."

Though the end of the Revolutionary War brought few changes to the life of the Up Country farmers, a solid framework of social and political organization was beginning to emerge.

In 1790, the Piedmont, with 81,533 inhabitants, accounted for 32.7% of South Carolina's population. By 1800 the population of this area had increased to 120,805, an increase of 48.2% over the previous decade. One obvious reason, clearly, was the promise of good agricultural lands, by this time a rare commodity in the coastal region.

Mills' *Atlas* reveals that the project tract is located in an area where roads have yet to be established. No settlements are found near the project area (Figure 6). In 1826, Pickens County was formed, along with Anderson County from part of Pendleton District.

Pickens County, by 1850, had 13,105 white inhabitants and 3,679 African American slaves, most operating the 1,231 farms scattered across the county. There were 93,206 acres of improved farm land, or about 76 acres per farm (DeBow 1854: 302-305).

James Henry Hammond's defense of the South before the United States Senate declared, "No, you dare not make war on cotton. No power on earth dares to make war upon it. Cotton is King." This sentiment was the culmination of nearly fifty years of agricultural and economic practices that led the South to the brink of destruction. The Up Country's participation in this economic roller coaster has been described in some detail by Ford (1988) and only a brief synopsis will be presented here.

Lacking a consistently profitable staple crop, the Up Country concentrated on the production of subsistence crops until the early 1800s with the introduction of the cotton gin and the rise of English textile mills, the out-growth of the industrial revolution. This early emphasis on food stuffs, while retarding upward mobility, had a lasting influence on the region, its economy, and its world view. Cotton spread quickly during the first decade of the 1800s and by 1811 the Up Country was exporting over 30 million pounds of short-staple cotton (Ford 1988:7). This cotton boom promoted tremendous growth in the region, a growth that even the yeomen farmers could participate in since it required little capital outlay and was subject to no particular economies of scale.

Examining the agricultural base of Pickens, it is clear that the bulk of the farms produced subsistence, rather than cash crops, until the Civil War. While the county ranked sixth in the production of 127,821 bushels of rye and oats, it also ranked 27th in the production of cotton. Only Georgetown and Horry counties produced fewer than the 1,357 bales from Pickens (DeBow 1854). The only significant cash crop produced by Pickens County was tobacco. With 29,967 pounds reported, the county ranked first in tobacco production for 1850 (DeBow 1854).

Ford cautions against the easy trap of accepting the "dual-economy" hypothesis that views the Up Country as divided into planters raising cotton and yeoman farmers raising food stuffs and tobacco. Ford notes:

> by and large, Upcountry yeomen were not forced to make an all-or-nothing choice between commercial agriculture and subsistence farming, or between

> traditional mores and market values. Instead Upcountry yeomen made a set of crop-mix decisions each year, balancing their need for a sure and steady food supply with their desire for cotton profits, a cash income, and a higher standard of living (Ford 1988: 72).

There remained an uneasy peace between yeoman and plantation owner in the Up Country. In order to maintain the political support of the yeoman majority, planters were forced to moderate their economic and legal power, molding themselves to the community mores and opinion.

Ford argues that the Up Country actively participated in Secession because of the "country-republican ideal of personal independence, given particular fortification by the use of black slaves as a mud-sill class" (Ford 1988: 372). Yeomen and planters both rose to defend this common ideal.

The Civil War had little military impact on Pickens and no significant battles were fought in the County. The war did, however, change Pickens' history, destroying the basis of its wealth and creating in its place a system of tenancy – the hiring of farm laborers for a portion of the crop, a fixed amount of money, or both.

Immediately after the Civil War, cotton prices peaked, causing many Southerners to plant cotton again, in the hope of recouping losses from the War. The single largest problem across the South, however, was labor. While some freedmen stayed on to work, others, apparently many others, left. An Englishman traveling through the South immediately after the war remarked that, "Thirty-seven thousand negroes, according to newspaper estimates, have left South Carolina already, traveling west" (quoted in Orser 1988: 49).

The hiring of freedmen began immediately after the war, with variable results. The Freedmen's Bureau attempted to establish a system of wage labor, but the effort was largely tempered by the enactment of the Black Codes by the South Carolina Legislature in September 1865. These Codes allowed nominal freedom, while establishing a new kind of slavery, severely restricting the rights and freedoms of the black majority (see Orser 1988: 50). Added to the Codes were oppressive contracts that reinforced the power of the plantation owner and degraded the freedom of the Blacks. The freedmen found power, however, in their ability to break their contracts and move to a new plantation, beginning a new contract. With the high price of cotton and the scarcity of labor, this mechanism caused tremendous agitation to the plantation owners.

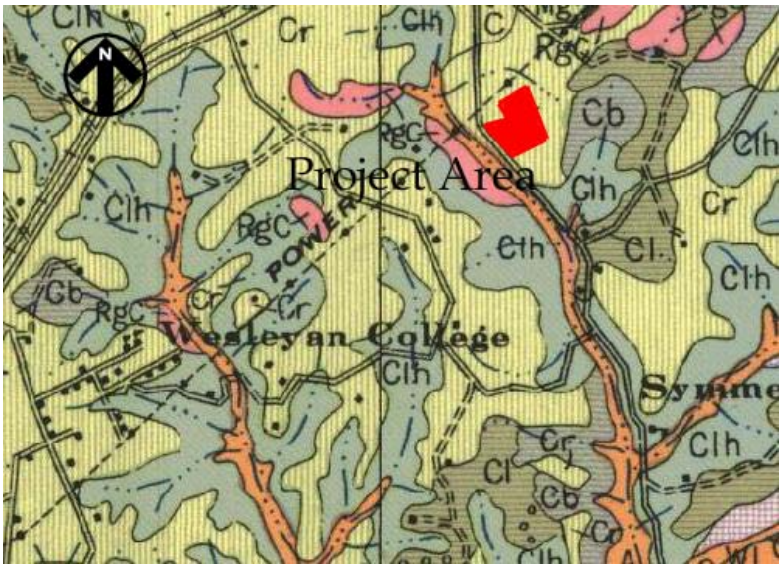

Figure 7. Portion of the 1937 Pickens County Soil Map showing the project area.

Gradually owners turned away from wage labor contracts to two kinds of tenancy – sharecropping and renting. While very different,

both succeeded in making land ownership very difficult, if not impossible, for the vast majority of Blacks. Sharecropping required the tenant to pay his landlord part of the crop produced, while renting required that he pay a fixed rent in either crops or money. In sharecropping, the tenant supplied the labor and one-half of the fertilizer, the seed, tools, work animal, animal feed, wood for fuel, and the other half of the needed fertilizer. In return the landlord received half of the crop at harvest. This system became known as "working on halves," and the tenants as "half hands," or "half tenants."

In share-renting, the landlord supplied the land, housing, and either one-quarter or one-third of the fertilizer costs. The tenant supplied the labor, animals, animal feed, tools, seed, and the remainder of the fertilizer. At harvest, the crop was divided in proportion to the amount of fertilizer that each party supplied. A number of variations on this occurred, one of the most common being "third and fourth," where the landlord received one-fourth of the cotton crop and one-third of all other crops. In cash-renting the landlord provided the land and housing, with the renter providing everything else and paying a fixed per-acre rent in cash.

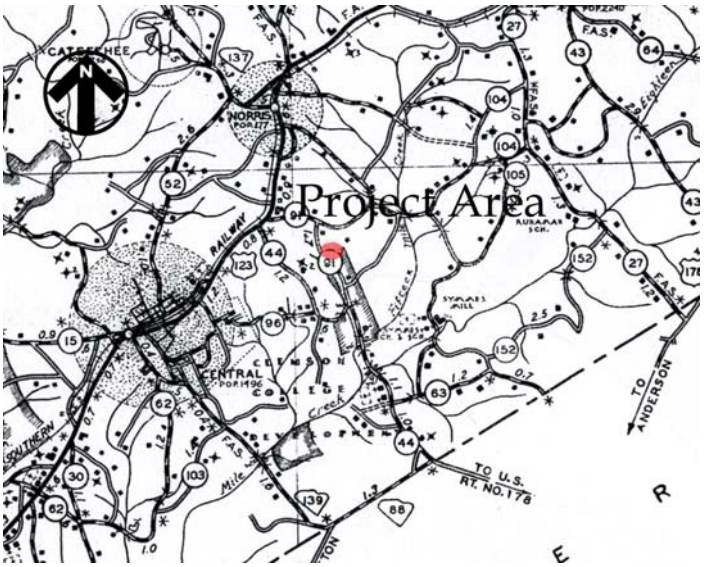

Figure 8. Portion of the 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Pickens County* showing the project area.

Between 1880 and 1925 the number of owner-operated farms in the Piedmont increased by 35.3%, while the number of cash renters increased by 375.4% and the number of sharecroppers increased by 155.8%. Moreover, 1880 was the only year between 1880 and 1925 during which a majority of Piedmont farmers were owners, and this occurred in only three counties. Afterwards the population of owner-operators in the Piedmont remained at about 30% (Orser 1988: 60).

Orser notes that the period from 1880 to 1920 is one of consistent agricultural expansion, with a concomitant increase in cotton production. This trend, however, changed between 1920 and 1925, when both the number of farms and the cotton production dramatically decreased (Orser 1988: 69). The causes of this reversal are at least two-fold: increasing Piedmont erosion and the introduction of the boll weevil (Orser 1988: 77).

The social environment of the Piedmont contributed to the distinctive character of its industrialization, especially at its mills. Because mills were often constructed either in rural areas, or in areas that were not yet able to support truly urban growth, the mill owners had to provide housing for the workers. This, coupled with other aspects of "welfare work" were intended to attract workers to the mills from the countryside. It is ironic that the relative isolation of Southern mills, when compared to their Northern counterparts, is what created the comprehensive pattern of paternalism which, in turn, assisted the owners in thwarting unionization. Also beneficial was the threat of black labor, just as effective to break unionization efforts in the early twentieth century as it was to control poor whites in the antebellum.

More significantly, the process "delayed the development of a skilled and literate non-farm labor force, an essential resource for the attraction of high-wage, capital-intensive industry" (Oates 1989: 730). In spite of the pervasiveness of the textile industry, it is important to realize that South Carolina (as well as the South as a whole) remained rural and agrarian. For example, in 1900 only 4% of the people were employed in manufacturing jobs, the remainder were largely rural and agrarian, steadfastly maintaining their ties to earlier times.

The early twentieth century Pickens County, and in particular the town of Central where the project area is located, saw the construction of businesses that helped bring jobs to the area. While nearby Clemson University was founded in 1889, a new college, Wesleyan (now Southern Wesleyan University) opened in 1906 (Bamann et al. 2004:20). Another business, the Issaqueena Mill, opened in 1903, also providing more jobs to the area (Bamann et al. 2004:20).

The 1937 Pickens County Soil Survey map (Figure 7) fails to show any structures in or near the project area.

The 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map of Pickens County* (Figure 8) also fails to identify any structures in the project area. Most settlements are along the main system of roads.

RESEARCH METHODS AND FINDINGS

Archaeological Field Methods and Findings

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along transects placed at 100-foot intervals at the southwest edge of the project area.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially. Each test would measure about 1 foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. These tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigators. Analysis of collections would follow professionally accepted standards with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

A total of seven transects were placed along the southwest edge of the project tract, along White Oak Road (S-91), from west to east. Shovel tests were excavated to the north. A total of 29 shovel tests were excavated within the project area.

Nevertheless, the archaeological survey of the tract failed to identify any remains. This is likely due to the lack of any distinct ridge top, distance from a permanent water source, and the severe erosion in the area.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use

Figure 9. View of the existing substation adjacent to the project area (current project area is to the right in the photograph).

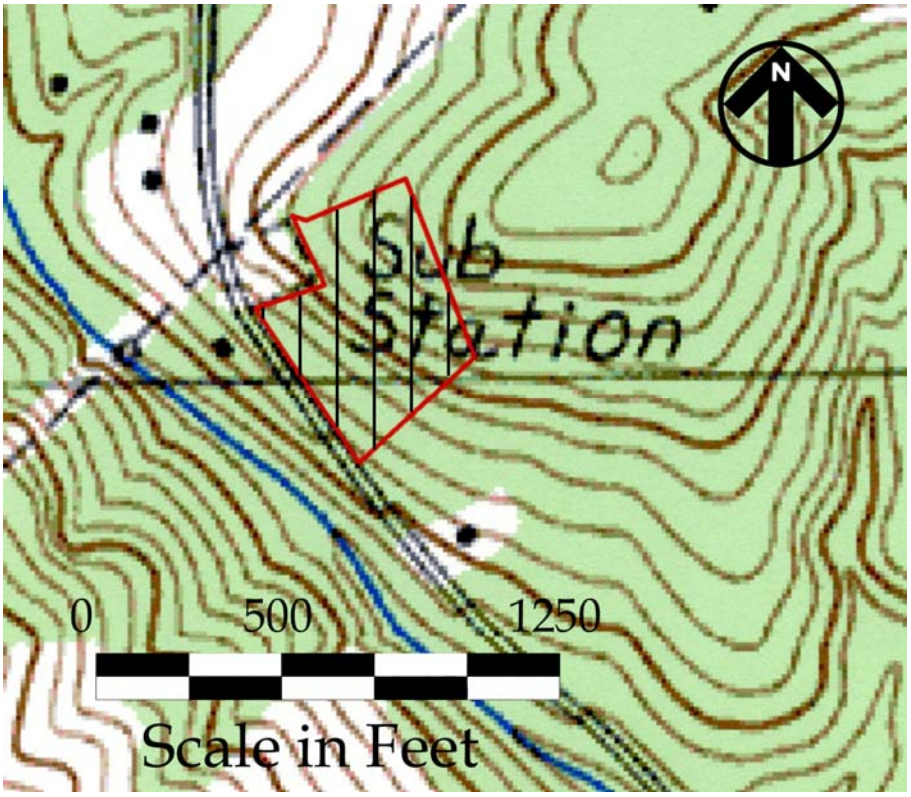

Figure 10. Project tract with transects.

a 0.5 mile area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before about 1950. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian n.d.:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs would be taken. Permanent control numbers would be assigned by the Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation and Findings

Archaeological sites would be evaluated for further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places is described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in

our past; or

c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or

d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

Figure 11. Shovel testing in the project area.

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and
- identification of important research questions among all of those which might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process may be summarized, but we try to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

The survey, however, failed to identify any structures that were in the APE that contain enough integrity to be eligible for the National Register of Historic Places.

CONCLUSIONS

This study involved the examination of approximately 6 acres of land for a substation in southern Pickens County. This work, conducted for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative examined archaeological sites and cultural resources found on the proposed project tract and is intended to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative in complying with their historic preservation responsibilities.

As a result of this investigation no sites were identified. This is likely the result of the lack of a distinct ridge top, distance from a permanent water source, and severe erosion.

A survey of public roads within 0.5 mile revealed no structures that retain the integrity for the National Register of Historic Places.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered during construction activities. As always, contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

SOURCES CITED

Anderson, David G.

1989a Review of *Late Archaic Landscapes*, by Steven Howard Savage. *South Carolina Antiquities* 21:65-69.

1989b The Mississippian in South Carolina. In *Studies in South Carolina Archaeology: Essays in Honor of Robert L. Stephenson*, edited by Albert C. Goodyear and Glen Hanson, pp. 101-132. Anthropological Studies 9. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

1992 Models of Paleoindian and Early Archaic Settlement in the Lower Southeast. In *Paleoindian and Early Archaic Period Research in the Lower Southeast: A South Carolina Perspective*, pp.28-47, edited by David G. Anderson, Kenneth E. Sassaman, and Christopher Judge. Council of South Carolina Professional Archaeologists, Columbia.

1994 *The Savannah River Chiefdoms: Political Change in the Late Prehistoric Southeast*. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

Anderson, David G. and Glen T. Hanson

1988 Early Archaic Settlement in the Southeastern United States: A Case Study from the Savannah River Valley. *American Antiquity* 53:262-286.

Anderson, David G. and Joseph Schuldenrein (editors)

1985 *Prehistoric Human Ecology Along the Upper Savannah River: Excavations at the Rucker's Bottom, Abbeville and Bullard Site Groups*. Commonwealth Associates, Inc., Jackson, Michigan. Submitted to National Park Service, Archaeological Services Branch, Atlanta.

Anderson, David G. and J.W. Joseph

1988 *Prehistory and History Along the Upper Savannah River*. Interagency Archaeological Services, National Park Service, Atlanta.

Anderson, David G. and Kenneth E. Sassaman

1996 *The Paleoindian and Early Archaic Southeast*. University of Alabama Press, Tuscaloosa.

Bamann, Susan, Jennifer Stewart, and Bill Hall

2004 *Cultural Resources Survey Replacement of Old Central Road Bridge Over the Norfolk Southern Railroad Tracks, Pickens County, South Carolina.* Coastal Carolina Research, Inc., Tarboro, North Carolina.

Barry, John M.

1980 *Natural Vegetation of South Carolina*. University of South Carolina Press, Columbia.

Binford, Lewis R.

1980 Willow Smoke and Dogs' Tails: Hunter-Gatherer Settlement Systems and Archaeological Site

Formation. *American Antiquity* 45:4-20.

Braun, Lucy
1950 *Deciduous Forests of Eastern North America*. Hafner Publishing, New York.

Brooks, Mark J. and Glen T. Hanson
1987 *Late Archaic-Late Woodland Adaptive Stability and Change in the Steel Creek Watershed, South Carolina*. Anthropological Studies 6. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Brooks, Richard D. and David C. Crass
1991 *A Desperate Poor Country: History and Settlement Patterning on the Savannah River Site, Aiken and Barnwell Counties, South Carolina.* Savannah River Archaeological Research Papers 2. University of South Carolina.

Byrd, Huger S.
1972 *Soil Survey of Pickens County, South Carolina.* U.S.D.A. Soil Conservation Service, Washington, D.C.

Cable, John S.
1982 Organizational Variability in Piedmont Hunter-Gatherer Lithic Assemblages. In *The Haw River Sites: Archaeological Investigations at Two Stratified Sites in the North Carolina Piedmont*, assembled by Stephen R. Claggett and John S. Cable, pp. 637-688. Report 2386, Commonwealth Associates, Inc., Jackson, Michigan.

1994 Book Note on *Late Archaic Landscapes*, by Steven Howard Savage. *American Antiquity* 59:179.

Caldwell, Joseph R.
1954 The Old Quartz Industry of Piedmont Georgia and South Carolina. *Southern Indian Studies* 5:37-38.

1958 *Trend and Tradition in the Prehistory of the Eastern United States*. Memoirs of the American Anthropological Association Number 88.

Canouts, Veletta and Albert C. Goodyear, III
1985 Lithic Scatters on the South Carolina Piedmont. In *Structure and Process in Southeastern Archaeology*, edited by Roy S. Dickens and Trawick Ward, pp. 180-194. University of Alabama Press, University, Alabama.

Coe, Joffre L.
1952 The Cultural Sequence of the Carolina Piedmont. In *Archaeology of the Eastern United States*, edited by J.B. Griffin, pp. 301-311. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.

1964 The Formative Cultures of the Carolina Piedmont. *Transactions of the American Philosophical Society* 54(5).

DeBow, J.D.B.
1854 *Statistical View of the United States.* A.O.P. Nicholson, Washington, D.C.

Derting, Keith, Sharon Pekrul, and Charles Rinehart
1991 *A Comprehensive Bibliography of South Carolina Archaeology*. Research Manuscript Series 211.

South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Dickens, Roy
1970 *The Pisgah Culture and its Place in the Prehistory of the Southern Appalachians*. Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Anthropology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Egloff, Brian J.
1967 *An Analysis of Ceramics from Historic Cherokee Towns.* Unpublished masters thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Elliott, Daniel T.
1981 *Soapstone Use in the Wallace Reservoir*. Wallace Reservoir Project Contribution 5. Department of Anthropology, University of Georgia, Athens.

Ferguson, Leland
1976 *Archaeological Survey of a Fall Line Creek: Crane Creek Project; Richland County South Carolina.* Research Manuscript Series 94. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Ford, Lacy K., Jr.
1988 *Origins of Southern Radicalism: The South Carolina Upcountry, 1800-1860*. Oxford University Press, New York.

Goodyear, Albert C., James L. Michie, and Tommy Charles
1989 The Earliest South Carolinians. In *Studies in South Carolina Archaeology*, edited by Albert C. Goodyear and Glen T. Hanson, pp. 19-52. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Goodyear, Albert C., John H. House, and Neal W. Ackerly
1979 *Laurens-Anderson: An Archaeological Study of the South Carolina Inter-riverine Piedmont*. Anthropological Study 4. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Grange, Roger D.
1972 The I.C. Few Site (38PN2). Unpublished manuscript on file at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Hasselton, George M.
1974 Some Reconnaissance Geomorphological Observations in Northwestern South Carolina and Adjacent North Carolina. *Geologic Notes* 18(4):60-67.

Holden, Patricia
1966 *An Archaeological Survey of Transylvania County, N.C.* Unpublished M.A. thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

House, John H. and David L. Ballenger
1976 *An Archaeological Survey of the Interstate 77 Route in the South Carolina Piedmont*. Research Manuscript Series 104. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology

and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

House, John H. and Ronald W. Wogaman
1978 *Windy Ridge: A Prehistoric Site in the Inter-Riverine Piedmont in South Carolina*. Anthropological Studies 3. Occasional Papers of the Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Huff, Archie Vernon, Jr.
1995 *Greenville: The History of the City and County in the South Carolina Piedmont.*. University of South Carolina Press, Columbia.

Johnson, Thomas F.
1970 *Paleoenvironmental Analysis and Structural Petrogenesis of the Carolina Slate Belt near Columbia, South Carolina*. Unpublished M.S. Thesis, Department of Geology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Joy, Deborah, Jared Roberts, and Steve Rankin
2005 *Proposed Improvements to SC-133 (College Ave./6-Mile Highway): Replacement over 12-mile Creek (Lake Hartwell) Between Old Jewell Bridge Road and Old 6 Mile and Road and Intersection Improvements at SC-39-15 (Madden Bridge Road) and SC-39-102 (Pike Road) in Pickens County, South Carolina.* Legacy Research Association, Durham, North Carolina.

Keel, Bennie
1976 *Cherokee Archaeology: A Study of the Appalachian Summit*. University of Tennessee Press, Knoxville.

Kelly, Arthur B. and Clemens de Baillou
1960 Exavation of Presumtive site of Estatoe. *Southern Indian Studies* 12. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Kovacik, Charles F. and John J. Winberry
1987 *South Carolina: The Making of a Landscape.* University of South Carolina Press, Columbia.

Lipscomb, Terry W.
1991 *Battles, Skirmishes, and Actions of the American Revolution in South Carolina.* S.C. Department of Archives and History, Columbia.

Logan, John
1859 *A History of the Upper Country of South Carolina from the Earliest Periods to the Close of the War of Independence,* Vol. 1. n.p., Columbia.

Lowry, M.W.
1934 *Reconnaissance Erosion Survey of the State of South Carolina*. United States Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service.

Michie, James L.
1977 *The Late Pleistocene Human Occupation of South Carolina*. Unpublished undergraduate honors thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of South Carolina.

Miller, Carl F.
1959 Physical Structure of Rock Mound 9ST3, Georgia. *Southern Indian Studies* 11. University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill.

Mills, Robert
1972 [1826] *Statistics of South Carolina*. Reprinted. The Reprint Press, Spartanburg, South Carolina. Originally published 1826,

Hurlburt and Lloyd, Charleston.

Oates, Mary J.
1989 Industrialization in the Piedmont. In *Encyclopedia of Southern Culture*, edited by Charles Reagan Wilson, William Ferris, Ann J. Abadie, and Mary L. Hart, pp. 729-731. University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill.

Orser, Charles E., Jr.
1988 *The Material Basis of the Postbellum Plantation: Historical Archaeology in the South Carolina Piedmont*. University of Georgia Press, Athens.

Price, Jeffrey
1992 *Piedmont South Carolina: A Cultural Resources Survey of Selected Timber Stands in Sumter National Forest, South Carolina*. Southeastern Archaeological Services, Inc. Athens, Georgia.

Purrington, Burton L.
1983 Ancient Mountaineers: An Overview of the Prehistoric Archaeology of North Carolina's Western Mountain Region. In *The Prehistory of North Carolina: An Archaeological Symposium*, edited by Mark A. Mathis and Jeffrey J. Crow, pp. 83-160. North Carolina Division of Archives and History, Department of Cultural Resources, Raleigh.

Racine, Philip N.
1979 *Spartanburg County: A Pictorial History.* Donning, Virginia Beach.

Rafferty, Janet
1992 Review of *Late Archaic Landscapes*. *Southeastern Archaeology* 11(1):72.

Ruffin, Edmund
1843 *Report on the Commencement and Progress of the Agricultural Survey of South Carolina for 1843.* A.H. Pemberton, Columbia.

Sassaman, Kenneth E.
1983 *Middle and Late Archaic Settlement in the South Carolina Piedmont*. M.A. thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Sassaman, Kenneth E. and David G. Anderson
1994 *Middle and Late Archaic Archaeological Records of South Carolina*. Council of South Carolina Professional Archaeologists, Columbia.

Sassaman, Kenneth E., Glen T. Hanson, and Tommy Charles
1988 Raw Material Procurement and the Reduction of Hunter-Gatherer Range in the Savannah River Valley. *Southeastern Archaeology* 7(2):79-94.

Sassaman, Kenneth E., Mark J. Brooks, Glen T. Hanson, and David G. Anderson
1990 *Native American Prehistory of the Middle Savannah River Valley: A Synthesis of Archaeological Investigations on the Savannah River Site, Aiken and Barnwell Counties, South Carolina*. Savannah River Archaeological Research Papers 1. Occasional Papers of the Savannah River Archaeological Research Program, South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Savage, Steven H.
1989 *Late Archaic Landscapes.*

Anthropological Studies 8. South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, University of South Carolina, Columbia.

Smith, Marvin T., M. Williams, C. DePratter, M.W. Williams, and M. Harmon
1988 *Archaeological Investigations at Tomassee (38OC186), A Lower Cherokee Town.* Garrow and Associates, Inc.

State Department of Agriculture, Commerce, and Immigration
1907 *Handbook of South Carolina: Resources, Institutions and Industries of the State.* The State Company, Columbia.

Swanton, John R.
1946 *Indian Tribes of the Southeastern United States.* Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of American Ethnology Bulletin 137. United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.

Sweeney, Alex and Erin Kane
2005 *Cultural Resources Survey of the Proposed Bridge Replacement on Road S-140/93 Over Eighteen Mile Creek, Anderson and Pickens counties, South Carolina.* Brockington and Associates, Charleston.

Tippett, V. Ann and William H. Marquardt
1981 Interassemblage Variation in a Stratified Site: A Piedmont Example. *South Carolina Antiquities* 13.

Townsend, Jan, John H. Sprinkle, Jr., and John Knoerl
1993 *Guidelines for Evaluating and Registering Historical Archaeological Sites and Districts.* National Register Bulletin 36. U.S. Department of the Interior, National Park Service, Washington, D.C.

Trimble, Stanley W.
1974 *Man-Induced Soil Erosion on the Southern Piedmont, 1700-1970.* Soil Conservation Society of America, Aukey, Iowa.

Trinkley, Michael
1990 *An Archaeological Context for the South Carolina Woodland Period*. Chicora Foundation Research Series 22. Chicora Foundation, Inc. Columbia, South Carolina.

Trinkley, Michael and Olga Caballero
1983 *An Archaeological and Historical Evaluation of the I-85 Northern Alternative, Spartanburg County, South Carolina*. S.C. Department of Highways and Public Transportation.

U.S. Department of Agriculture
1980 *Yadkin-Pee Dee River Basin, North and South Carolina – Forest Resources.* U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Vivian, Daniel J.
n.d. *South Carolina Statewide Survey of Historic Properties.* S.C. Department of Archives and History, Columbia.

Walthall, John A.
1980 *Prehistoric Indians of the Southeast: Archaeology of Alabama and the Middle South*. University of Alabama Press, University.

Wauchope, Robert
1966 Archaeological Survey of Northern Georgia. *Society for American Archaeology Memoir* 21.

White, John W.
1982 *An Integration of Late Archaic Settlement Patterns for the South Carolina Piedmont*. M.A. thesis, Department of Anthropology, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville.

Wilson, Homes Hogue
1986 Burials from the Warren Wilson Site: Some Biological and Behavioral Considerations. In *The Conference on Cherokee Prehistory* assembled by David Moore, pp. 42-72. Warren Wilson College, Swannanoa, North Carolina.

Wood, Dean and Thomas Gresham
1981 *Archaeological Test Excavations at 38LU107 Rabon Creek Watershed, Laurens County, South Carolina*. Southeastern Wildlife Services, Inc., Athens, Georgia.

Wood, Dean, Dan Elliott, Teressa Rudolph, and Dennis Blanton
1986 *Prehistory in the Richard B. Russell Reservoir: The Archaic and Woodland Periods of the Upper Savannah River: The Final Report of the Data Recovery at the Anderson and Elbert County Groups: 38AN8, 38AN29, 38AN126; 9EB17, 9EB19, and 9EB21*. Atlanta Interagency Archaeological Services Division, National Park Service, Russell Papers.

Archaeological Investigations

Historical Research

Preservation

Education

Interpretation

Heritage Marketing

Museum Support Programs

Chicora Foundation, Inc.
PO Box 8664 ▪ 861 Arbutus Drive
Columbia, SC 29202-8664
Tel: 803-787-6910
Fax: 803-787-6910
Email: Chicora@earthlink.net
www.chicora.org